

The Classical Outlook

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THE CLASSICS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

By DOROTHY THOMPSON
New York City

(Note: This is an address delivered before a joint meeting of the American Classical League and the New York Classical Club in New York City on October 27, 1944.)

MY LONG HESITATION in accepting this invitation and my determination to play a very minor role in this discussion has been due to the extreme humility I feel in the presence of professional educators. I can claim to have had a classical education in Latin, though I am an ignoramus of Greek. But I should not like to be submitted to even an easy examination in Latin. In fact, when I undertook last summer to give my young son some preliminary tutoring in first-year Latin, I found that I needed to consult a "prop" from time to time.

So here I stand as a living substantiation of the accusation that Latin is useless. I sat in Latin classes during seven years of my life, and there was a time when I took pleasure in translating Horace into verse and Plautus and Terence into English dramas, but as every muscle which is not kept trained loses its strength, my knowledge has dwindled. And that can mean only that for many years Latin has been "useless" to me, in the sense that I have not consciously used it.

Should I therefore not deplore that I did not spend this same time and effort in learning, let us say, Spanish? In my profession as a journalist, I certainly would have made the most of it, as my knowledge of German and to a lesser extent of French has been and still is of enormous working use to me.

But I don't regret it at all. Why not?

Is it because I believe that a classical background supports my *amour propre* as a cultivated woman? If that were so, I should not admit that I have lost so much of this hardly acquired knowledge. On the contrary, I should pepper this talk with Latin phrases to show how superior I am.

Is it because I might have chosen to study medicine or law, or theology, or become a Latin teacher, in which cases I might have found Latin of actual current use? That would also be false, for none of these fields of activity ever attracted me.

And yet I am absolutely convinced that nothing I ever studied has proved of

greater value to me than the years I spent in a study of the Latin grammar and classics.

Now, I find I use the word *value*, not *use*; and therein lies the point. For *usefulness* describes something that can immediately be exploited; something, for instance, by which one can earn a living. But *value* expresses a standard of measurement. Gold, for instance, is a metal of limited usefulness. It is useful in some chemical processes, and is used for articles of adornment, and in the popular mind is

DUNA

Translated by ARTHUR WINFRED HODGMAN
The Ohio State University

Cum adhuc essem parvulus
Inepte garrii,
Cupiens me navibus
Freta transvehi.
Sed trans australes fluctus
Nunc mane audio
Labentis Dunae rivos
Liquido.

Cum essem adulescens
Et vita hilaris,
Totum me et navibus
Dedi et navitis.
Sed me salsi venti taedet
Et undae spumeae;
Domum revocant me Dunae
Stellulae.

associated with luxury—as something unnecessary, like Latin. Nevertheless mankind continues to mine gold. Even in the Soviet Union they mine gold. Lenin, in the first days of the Soviet Union, treated gold with complete contempt. But in the Bretton Woods conference, the Soviet representative was the most conservative of all concerning the gold standard. So the Soviet Union must have discovered something in gold. And it is exactly what we find in a classical education: a standard of measurement, a *value* for the measurement of other values.

I write in English. I do not write in Latin. But I know that I write in an English that has been immensely influenced by a Latin education, and influenced entirely for the good. If, in my writing, I show any precision in the choice of

words, and any precision in the structure of sentences—in syntax—I owe it to the analytic character of Latin grammar lessons. It was only there that I learned that language is an instrument of clear and precise thinking. It was there that I learned that the smallest change in an ending, or in the position of a word, or in the choice of a pronoun, significantly modified a thought. Until I studied Latin all language had come to me by ear, and unconsciously. And, furthermore, what modern languages I have learned since then have come to me in the same way. It is exactly the immediate usefulness of a modern language which deflects attention from the fine logic in language. The student studying French wants to *speak* French—to use it, right away. He is not interested in the logic of French. He wants to be able to order a meal. The influence of his newly acquired knowledge on his mother tongue is quite different from the influence of classical study. He may transfer pictures from one language into another. He is very likely, however to rub off one language on the other. I have long observed that the finest writers usually have a defense mechanism in themselves against other modern languages. There are always exceptions that prove the rule, but by and large the best writers in English, German, or French are miserable linguists. Thomas Mann, for instance, actually speaks less fluent English, after years of residence in America, than dozens of emigrés of my acquaintance who make no claims to any special gift of language. But Thomas Mann, who writes the most exquisitely differentiated German, *did* have a classical education.

And that is just my point: Far from rubbing off his own language, classical grammatical training has made him conscious of the essentials of language *generally*. It forces him to *choose* his words, and frame them in a proper structure. All phrases of a classical language have long since been absorbed into our own, so there is no *seduction* in them.

But now it will be said: Granted. But most people will not become writers. Yet writing is nothing but the expression of thought. All people think—or should think. At least, it is the aim of education to make them think—and as precisely and logically as possible. Generally speaking, the process of thinking is in words—in verbal symbols. And the clarity of our thoughts depends on precision in words and control over words. We have all heard people say, "I know what I think,

Page 65

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but I don't know how to say it." I doubt that statement. It really means, "I feel to what conclusions I should come, if I were able to think."

Progress in all fields of thought largely depends in the differentiation of generalities, in finer and finer definitions. Now, it is precisely the grammatical training of the classics, in a field removed from the immediate pressures of usefulness, which provides that training. We must not assume that for two thousand years of western civilization, higher education put its chief emphasis upon grammatical and mathematical training out of mere whim. Nor must we assume that the great efflorescence of science, in our own great age of discovery, makes these two categories of education less necessary. It makes them *more* necessary, for science above everything demands precise thinking and precise observation.

And what alternative is there? Other types of education, which in our own age have usurped the field of the classics and of mathematics as well, are preparations for specified professions, jobs, or skills. They educate not the man, or the woman, but the mechanic, the engineer, the stenographer, or even the teacher. They do not turn out educated *persons*, but *experts* capable of serving only for a limited and specific function.

I do not say that they do not fulfill that task. Our nation is full of competent experts—in small fields and large ones. And through such integrations of these experts, as can be achieved by coordinators—through the techniques of the assembly line—we are achieving miracles in certain fields.

But where is our society weak? It is certainly weak in great leaders who can, *without benefit of experts*, think through in an integrated manner the large problems which confront our age, and by logical processes of analysis and thought achieve foresight. In fact, if I analyze the speeches which are made today by many men whom we distinguish with the name statesman, and compare them from the viewpoint of integration, logic, lucidity, and structure with, for instance, the papers of the Federalist or the Declaration of Independence, I can only say that I observe a difference between those who have had a classical education and those who have not. And the advantage is not with the latter.

The lack of classical and grammatical education is apparent daily in the confusions of thought. I recall that when I once made a defense of the classics in my column I received letters from my liberal friends branding me as a reactionary, and one even said I was Fascist. The accusers, who were well-informed people, overlooked the pertinent fact that Karl Marx had a classical education—a very thorough one—and that Hitler is ignorant of either Latin or Greek.

What we lack in our society is the philosophical mind and common frames of reference. And I doubt the long survival in equilibrium of any society that is atomized into thousands of specific skills, highly developed as they may be, without the cement of a common intellectual standard of value. It is not necessary, in any society, that such standards of value should be maintained by everybody. No such society has ever existed, or ever will. Standards are always set by minorities. But we are approaching the point where there is not even any substantial minority who hold a common standard, or are in possession of a common body of knowledge and a common system of intellectual



MODERN DAEDALUS

By MINNIE LEE SHEPARD
University of Texas

Remember, Son, when, standing at my knee,

You begged again and yet again to hear
How fabled Icarus first sailed the air
On artful feather wings, and daringly
Now skirted Boötes, now Helice;
How, heedless of the fateful perils near,
Or father's plea a middle course to steer,
He fell with scorched wings into the sea.

Yes, Son, I know he won enduring fame:
The sea, the island near, both bear his name.

Were that the end! I should not need to mourn

That from the skies you hurtle fires far worse

Than lightning bolts of Jove, nor should I curse

My skill in making gods of men earth-born.



training. Without such a substantial minority with a common system of intellectual training, we cannot even raise the right questions. For a question always arises at a weak point in a logical system. And to discover these weak points we must have persons who *see the whole* system.

No society can long endure without at least a common language—by which I don't mean common linguistics. But we must know what our fellow citizens are talking about, and very often we don't, because it is impossible to follow the structure of their thought and expression.

For such a disease a basic cure must be applied—not skin remedies: such as better courses in English literature. And I know no cure except the revival in our secondary schools, and in our colleges of the liberal arts, of strict grammatical and mathematical education.

SAT VERBORUM SAPIENTIA EST

By B. L. ULLMAN
University of North Carolina

THE READERS DIGEST for January, 1945, p. 29, under the title, "It Pays to Increase Your Word Power," states that intelligence is measured by size of vocabulary, that the Army and the Navy consider word knowledge very important in judging the capacity of officers, and that personnel directors use vocabulary tests to determine the ability of applicants for employment. Then it gives a multiple-choice test of twenty words taken from an issue of the Digest. The words are: *spurious, preclude, salient, predatory, sacrosanct, sporadic, atrophy, exotic, badinage, hyperbole, minions, precariously, cartographer, compensatory, panegyric, emulous, sedulously, truculent, quixotic, assiduously*. All but one (*minions*) are derived ultimately from Latin or Greek—i.e., 95 per cent. Thirteen of these (65 per cent) are from Latin, six (thirty per cent) from Greek. Most of the words of Latin origin are derived from Latin words familiar to high-school Latin pupils in their first and second years, as *claudio, salio, praevia, sacer, sanctus, precor, pendo, sedeo*. *Badinage* comes through French from Vulgar Latin, and *quixotic* from the Spanish name Quixote, which is derived from Latin *coxa*. Here Latin is not helpful.

The Digest suggests that its readers look up each new word they meet, then write down its meaning and pronunciation, as well as the sentence in which it occurs, and finally use it three times. This is a very good suggestion for adult readers, but Latin teachers can offer another excellent method for high-school pupils—that of analyzing in class the words of Latin origin and working out the meaning from the derivation.

The Digest observes that each new word learned increases mental power and that *the easiest and quickest way to success is vocabulary building*.

In the February, 1945, issue the Digest contains another word power test of twenty words: *egress, meticulous, mundane, mull, panoply, torque, prototype, palliate, malevolent, myopia, protocol, mulct, centrifuge, clandestine, fuliginous, autonomy, surreptitious, transmute, flagrant, tentative*. Once again, 95 per cent are classical—70 per cent Latin, 25 per cent Greek. Again many of the words are derived from familiar Latin words, such as *egredior, metus, mundus, torqueo, male, volo, fugio, rapio, muto, tempto*. In most cases the Latin is helpful.

The editor remarks, "The more words you have at your command, the deeper, clearer, and more accurate will be your thinking . . . and your power of expression."

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VOX MAGISTRI

This department is designed as a clearing-house of ideas for classroom teachers. Teachers of Latin and Greek are invited to send in any ideas, suggestions, or teaching devices which they have found to be helpful.

A WORD CLUB

Mr. Edward Coyle, formerly of the Morris High School, New York City, writes as follows:

"At Morris High School we had a Word Club, open to students of any foreign language, as well as those particularly interested in the derivation of English words. Each meeting was devoted to a particular topic. Students chose topics of interest to them, and were given two or three weeks to work on them before reporting to the club. Occasionally, when the topic seemed somewhat difficult for a high school pupil to work out, the teacher would deliver the talk. In each case, historical matter was given on the topic, and then the derivation of particular words in connection with the topic was taken up.

"Some of our topics were: Theories of the origin of language; theories and facts of grammatical gender; cognates, derivatives, doublets; the alphabet and writing; punctuation marks and small letters; the Rosetta Stone; the descent of manuscripts; grammatical and rhetorical terms and figures of speech; words for the measurement of time; words for money and coinage; words from numbers; words to denote weights and measures; words from proper names; Basic English; Esperanto and other artificial languages; slang.

"Among the words studied were: *grammar, glamour, dime, drachma, lira, pound, penny, fragile, frail, nescient, nice, secure, sure, Lucullan, cicerone, epicurean, stoic, cynic, quarantine, millennium, decimal, pentagon, inch, ounce.*

"The work of the club, I believe, was of great value to the students. It gave them some realization of the immense debt we owe to our ancestors. Also, it gave them some antidote for the frenzied pursuit of the contemporaneous, and the activities of those who are driving sound learning from our schools and substituting opinion for knowledge. These students had to quote authorities, and to distinguish carefully between theory and fact. They learned that the etymology of certain words is known, while that of certain other words is obscure, dubious, or entirely unknown. Although they discovered that in some respects human knowledge is limited, they learned to honor its great achievements."

A LATIN STUDENT ABROAD

Mrs. Hazel Pullman, of the Garnett (Kansas) High School, writes:

"My own son is in Italy, with the army. He writes very interestingly of the

In the February, 1944, issue of THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK I noted that in a thirty-word test in the Saturday Evening Post 80 per cent of the words were derived from Latin, 13 per cent from Greek; in the November number I pointed out that in another vocabulary test eight of the ten words were of Latin origin, the other two of Greek origin.

Taking all four tests together, we find that the eighty words are 95 per cent classical, 21.25 per cent Greek.



HEARTS OF PALM

By MARY JOHNSTON

MacMurray College, Jacksonville, Illinois

XENOPHON in the *Anabasis* (ii, 3, 16), tells us that the Greek soldiers on the march soon after the battle of Cunaxa got provisions in villages, where they ate dates and the delicate tip of the date palm tree, and drank wine made from the dates. He speaks of the appearance and the special flavor of the heart of palm, as we would call it, and says that it gave the men headache, as did the date-wine.

Mrs. Rawlings, in *Cross Creek* (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1942), page 216, describes the method of cutting down young palmetto trees for the sake of the tip, or "heart," called in Florida "swamp cabbage." When this is cut out all hard fiber must be trimmed off.

Xenophon does not tell how the men ate it. Mrs. Rawlings gives two recipes, one for a salad, and one for cooking it. She does not say that it is "headachy." Probably that was the effect of the wine, not of the hearts of palm!

Some of our soldiers in the Pacific report that when coconut palms are cut down, whether by shelling or in road making, enterprising mess sergeants have provided their outfits with salad and dessert, cutting out the tips for salad, and (Xenophon never heard of this!) making coconut pie with the fresh cocoanuts.

AGAIN "TRIPHIBIOUS"

In December, 1944, Dr. Emory E. Cochran, of the Fort Hamilton High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., wrote identical letters to the editors of three English dictionaries, calling their attention to the fact that such a word as *triphibious* was etymologically impossible, since the *ph* is a part of the prefix *amphi-*, and not a part of the root word. The following is the reply received from the editors of the Webster dictionary; we quote it by permission.

"Dear Sir:

"In reply to your monitory letter of December 4 with reference to *triphibious*, we must report that both *triphibian* and *triphibious* have already been recognized in published lexical lists. The 1944 New International Year Book attributes the coinage of *triphibian* to Prime Minister Winston Churchill and of *triphibious* to George Fielding Eliot. The London Spectator attributes the latter to the British Home Secretary, Herbert Morrison. We have not compared news releases to see which antedates the other. The 1944 Britannica Year Book enters both words under the heading 'Words and Their Meanings, New,' pp. 769-770.

"Philologically we may agree with Ted Robinson of the Cleveland Plain Dealer that *triphibian* is a 'grievous error,' but from long experience we know that a barbarous neologism if badly enough needed for a common situation will in the absence of an alternative word eventually become current despite the linguist's protests. For example, *electrocute* and *enthuse* could not be denied. Of course, these entries are hedged when recorded by lexicographers with limiting labels or notes. If journalists were to adopt *tribious*, which is etymologically a possible form, the pressure for a three-fold term corresponding to *amphibious* might be canalized away from the spurious hybrids.

"Very truly yours, G. and C. Merriam Co., by E. F. Oakes."

Pontine marshes. He says he has no trouble with street signs and other signs written in Italian, although he has had only two years of Latin, and no Italian at all."

LATIN AND ITALIAN

Dr. Emilio Guerra, of the Benjamin Franklin High School, New York City, sends in the following Latin poem in praise of Venice, written by a fourteen-year-old boy of Salo, on Lake Garda, in 1776. The interesting thing about the verses is that every word and every form in them exists in both Italian and Latin, and a student of either language can read them with ease.

Te saluto, alma Dea, Dea generosa,
O gloria nostra, O Veneta regina!
In procelloso turbine funesto
Tu regnasti secunda: mille membra
Intrepida prostrasti in pugna acerba:
Per te miser non fui, per te non gemo:
Vivo in pace per te. Regna, O beata!
Regna in prospera sorte in pompa augusta,
in perpetuo splendore, in aurea sede:
Tu serena, tu placida, tu pia,
Tu benigna, me salva, ama, conserva.



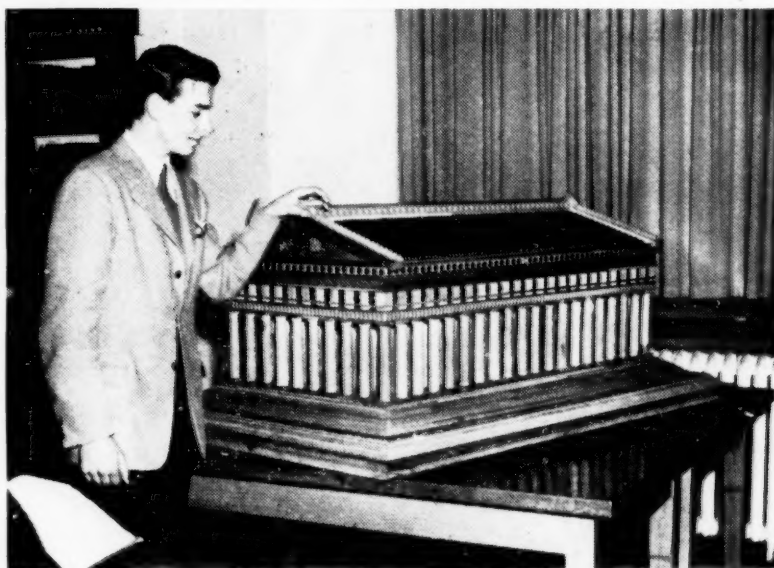
THE EASTER STORY

Vespere autem sabbati, quae lucescit in prima sabbati, venit Maria Magdalene et altera Maria videre sepulchrum. Et ecce terrae motus factus est magnus. Angelus enim Domini descendit de caelo: et accedens revolvit lapidem, et sedebat super eum. Erat autem aspectus eius sicut fulgur, et vestimentum eius sicut nix. Praeterea timore autem eius exterriti sunt custodes, et facti sunt velut mortui. Respondens autem angelus dixit mulieribus: "Nolite timere vos: scio enim quod Iesum, qui crucifixus est, quaeritis. Non est hic: surrexit enim, sicut dixit. Venite, et videte locum ubi positus erat Dominus. Et cito euntes, dicite discipulis eius quia surrexit. Et ecce praecedit vos in Galilaam: ibi eum videbitis. Ecce, praedixi vobis." Et exierunt cito de monumento cum timore, et gaudio magno, currentes nuntiare discipulis eius.—*Matt.* xxviii. 1-8. Vulgate version.



THE ROMAN LAW PROJECT

Under the direction of Professor Clyde Pharr, scholars at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, are engaged in a great project—viz., the collection and translation into English of the entire body of Roman law, whether preserved in codes, inscriptions, literature, or papyri. The material will be carefully annotated and indexed, and the translation will be of the "variorum" type. The study bids fair to be a monumental contribution to classical scholarship.



Courtesy of the Canisius College Griffin

MODEL OF THE TEMPLE OF ARTEMIS AT EPHEBUS

THE TEMPLE OF ARTEMIS AT EPHEBUS

One of the latest in the series of models of ancient buildings made by Rev. Anthony M. Guenther, S.J., of Canisius College, Buffalo, N. Y., is a replica of the temple of Artemis at Ephesus, one of the seven wonders of the ancient world.

The original temple, the construction of which was begun in about 350 B. C., served as a place of worship, a place of refuge, a bank, and a sort of civic center. It was 342 feet long, 164 feet wide, and about 110 feet high. It had 127 columns in double rows, 6 feet in diameter at the base, and 60 feet high, set 17 feet apart. It stood on a foundation 418 feet long and 239 feet wide. Little of it remains.

Father Guenther's model is on a scale of 1:96. It required 118 man-hours to build; the original is estimated by some scholars to have required 120 years. The model is built of "Ersatz" material, for the metals and woods used on other replicas were no longer available. The roof was made of metal box strapping, treated in a specially designed rotary press to imitate Greek tiles. An old, tuneless piano supplied wood for the columns. The foundation of the temple structure was made of the box of the same piano. The eaves were formed of pieces of the framing of the inside of the piano, cut to give the appearance of molding. Upholstery nails were used on the architrave and on the ornamented ceiling. Parts of the flooring and all of the capitals of the columns were made of rejected plywood originally meant for the construction of seats for Army "jeeps."

This temple brings the number of completed models by Father Guenther to fifteen. He is working at present on models of the Pyramid of Khufu, and the Circus Maximus in Rome.



ONE YEAR OF LATIN IN COLLEGE

By FREDERIC M. WHELOCK
Brooklyn College

DESPITE BRAVE predictions of a classical renaissance in the twentieth century, the fact remains that, as in the case of Greek twenty-five or more years ago, increasing numbers of students reach college without Latin; and so, if they are to have any Latin at all, they must *begin* it in college. To be sure, in secondary schools during the past quarter of a century Latin survived Greek, and it still does, with the result that one may choose among many modernized beginners' books for high-school students. But college students are not high-school students. The psychological difference between the two groups can hardly be doubted. Even if juvenile survivals are observable in Freshmen during the first term, most Freshmen at least try to give evidence of the mature bearing and outlook which they associate with college and which college requires of them. Though still docile enough to memorize rules when the logic and the necessity thereof are explained, they also want to think for themselves, when properly prompted, and they respond to great thoughts and epigrammatic observations

which provoke analysis and discussion.

Therefore, little remains for an instructor to do but blush when to these students he assigns an exercise containing such sentences as "There are twenty eyes in the bodies of ten men" and "The men had wounded the horse's head with long weapons." Younger and less reflective students may submit uncomplainingly to the like of this, but the more mature find such sentences quite empty of anything to reward them for enduring some mild discipline in forms. The imagination is not stirred; surely *this Latin is dead*! The same is only less true of many of the "made" Latin stories and playlets in first year books: they prove too childish or too saccharine to arouse the interest of college students.

Another defect from the psychological point of view is found in the fact that many of the earlier lessons of high-school books are so simple that college classes can master the essential material of two of these lessons at a time. For instance, one book devotes three lessons to consonant stems of the third declension, and another whole lesson to the ablative of agent, which could easily have been included in the previous lesson on the passive voice. While the college student does not require and cannot afford such snail's progress, he resents being assigned the material of two lessons for one recitation; but, if the material were properly combined into one lesson, he would really find nothing about which to grumble.

In the golden age of required Latin for the degree of A.B., when the teacher of first year Latin could assume the continuance of a student in this field until he could harvest the profit of his earlier endurance in the reading of Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, the inanities of such books might be tolerated; these books taught forms and syntax well, and the rewards would come in time. But now, with Latin among the electives for even the degree of A.B., what are we to do? Freed from the linguistic requirement, college students turn from the traditionally difficult and unattractive Latin to easier, modern electives which they think have more to do with life. Today, therefore, the challenge is more exacting than ever before, and more exciting in that we must now demonstrate to college students that even one year of college beginning Latin can be not only practical in a number of ways but also interesting and productive of food for thought and guidance for life in our own day.

Are there, then, no books written for those beginning Latin in college? Yes, there are a few. The best one is a dignified, pictureless book which has the high merit of having little "made" Latin in its exercises. On the other hand, it proves very difficult, since it attempts during the introductory year to cover all of Latin syntax through the supine; and it uses a

far too extensive vocabulary without distinction between basic words and those of rare occurrence. It tends to overwhelm all but the best students. The other books are all either too severe or too "high-schoolish."

"Well, why worry," one may say, "for what, after all, can be the value of just one year of Latin in college?" Certainly one of the most valid reasons ever given

language "majors" need contact with mathematics, physics or chemistry, natural science, philosophy, history, art, hygiene, and the like to enlarge their personalities and to preserve them from bigotry, so "majors" in these fields should have at least a minimum contact with the Latin language and ideas.

Finally, even in institutions where economic pressure dictates practical results, students must admit that among the ingredients of success are to be found clarity of thought, ability to analyze, a thorough understanding of the English language, an accurate and copious vocabulary, and a clear and well disciplined expression. It would be bigoted and untrue to claim that a student cannot acquire these essentials without Latin, but it is not bigoted and untrue to say that in most of these points Latin is second in practical importance to no other subject, and that it does have certain unique advantages. Most timely evidence is that given by the student who wrote to Dr. Jacob Mann, of Boys' High School, New York City, that his Latin was one of his most valuable aids in passing the examination which made him an air cadet. Only those who know no Latin will find this hard to understand.

My thesis, then, is that, with the right book adapted to this special need, one year of Latin can be made valuable to every one. It remains to consider the making of the ideal book which can serve as an entity in itself for those who take only one year of Latin in college, and which can serve also as an introduction to further study of Latin for others.

The nature of the sentences in the exercises provides a good starting point. The ideal should be to derive them entirely (if possible) from ancient sources and, when necessary, to simplify or alter them by such devices as the use of synonyms or alternative constructions. While the adulteration must be admitted, the contention remains valid that these are still original Latin sentences and sentiments, and obviously the amount of editing would decrease in proportion to the student's progress through the year's work. A few random examples of the simpler possibilities are: "Modum tenere debemus; non ille diu vixit sed diu fuit; nulla avaritia sine poena est; fit via vi; dux femina facti (erat); nihil sub sole novum est." Surely one need not hesitate to rest his case on a comparison of these sentences with those cited earlier in this paper.

Nor is it putting the cart before the horse to start with the consideration of the sentences; for, since our aim is not primarily to satisfy college entrance examiners, these real Latin sentences and the subsequent reading material largely precondition the amount and the nature of the forms, the syntax, and the vocabulary, though these items should be restricted to a minimum by the devices mentioned

FISHERMAN'S LUCK

By JOHN K. COLBY

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Inter ripas florescentes
Tempore vernali,
Fluunt rivi iam liquentes
Glacie brumali.
Ecce, piscatores duo,
Cincti apparatu,
Pater est cum nato suo,
Dulci comitatu,
Aves suaviter caneant,
Deum confitentes,
Pisces aestu saliebant,
Nostros irridentes.
Isti neque sunt decepti
Muscis simulatis,
Neque vermibus allecti
Hamo deligatis.
Nostri tamen gaudent rure,
Admirantur agros
Atque viridi tellure
Flores huc summissos.
Dies sic consumebatur
Vario sermone,
Neque piscis captabatur
Ulla ratione.
Domum tandem redierunt
Fessi iam laborum,
Laeti nemora liquerunt
More piscatorum.
Pater felix, cui concessum,
Nullo pisce capto
Domum nunc referre gressum,
Nihil desperato,
Curis omnibus vacare
Exsoluta mente,
Rivulumque perlustrare
Filio sequente.

for studying this language is the stimulus of direct contact with great thoughts and ideas in immortal works of world literature; but that posits a course not of one year, but of four or five at least. In fact, one of the foremost objections to Latin is that it demands such a long apprenticeship. However, I am convinced that, with the right kind of book, at least some sort of Latin literary experience can be guaranteed, as will be explained below.

Then, too, did space permit, one could easily expatiate on the theme that, as

above. For the basic forms and syntax approximately two-thirds of the year has in my experience sufficed; the remaining third can then be the crowning period devoted to the reading of real Latin passages.

These Latin passages would be of various sorts, edited as required. Many beginners' books boast connected reading in nearly every lesson. In such instances, however, the earlier reading exercises are too simple for college students. Even among the later lessons of the book which this article proposes, one should not expect to find many reading passages. One should aim rather at garnering time for the extended reading period to come after all the lessons on essential forms and syntax have been covered. For, clearly, when students have learned this basic material, they can comprehend a much more complex text, and hence one much more literary and faithful to the original form. In that case, students will at the end of the year approach as nearly as is possible within these temporal limits that literary experience which is the great glory of Latin. Remember also that throughout the antecedent lessons students will be reading fine, interesting, thought-provoking sentences and therefore will not so greatly need the interlude of connected passages.

The problem of vocabulary is threefold. First place would inevitably be given to six or seven hundred basic words, and these would appear in the regular vocabulary sections to be mastered thoroughly. The second category would comprise words of less common occurrence, which one might call "recognition" words. Since we should not require the student to know these so thoroughly, we might well place them in subsidiary vocabularies definitely labeled as secondary, so as to eliminate the unfair difficulty which results when the main vocabularies become obese with items that are not so frequently encountered. Finally, the notes or the general vocabulary would take care of the *hapax legomena*.

Since the emphasis is to be placed on the reading of real Latin, I believe that in a book of this nature little time need be devoted to translation from English to Latin despite the theory underlying the long composition exercises of most beginners' books. As there is a recognition vocabulary, so there can also be a recognition syntax, as W. L. Carr and his students have demonstrated. Composition lessons should be reduced to an absolute minimum; they might even be replaced by the requirement that the student memorize one or two streamlined examples of each syntactical principle.

To the matter of etymology the modernized books appropriately pay considerable attention. On all sides English teachers and public figures deplore con-

temporary Americans' narrow and inaccurate knowledge of their own mother tongue. It follows that word work should be directed not merely to entertainment, legitimate as that is, but even more to the efficient amplification of the student's English vocabulary. If we exploit the unique possibilities of Latin to the full, we shall be able to offer to English departments one of the strongest practical reasons for encouraging their students to take at least one year of Latin.

A similar appeal can be made to those interested in the Romance languages, for the Latin elements in these languages could with great profit in both directions receive much more recognition than they do in most beginners' books. Students of these languages realize that they should have at least some Latin, but are disappointed that classical Latin seems to offer them so little. Many methods are possible. For instance, here and there optional lists of vulgar Latin words could be included, or literary words like *equus* and *pulcher* could be glossed with *caballus* and *bellus*.

In fine, the prime purpose of the book envisioned is that as an entirely self-sufficient volume it provide in itself both the roots and the fruits of a well-rounded Latin experience for those college students who will have only one year of Latin in their entire educational career; for I am convinced that even this brief study of the subject can, if properly managed, be both valuable and interesting (I did not say effortless!) for all, whatever their "major" may be. In the second place, this same book, while definitely not intended to be ancillary to Caesar or any other specific author, should provide an adequate introduction and encouragement to further Latin studies.

✻ ✻ ✻

LATIN AS AN INTERNATIONAL AUXILIARY LANGUAGE

I

By ROBERT T. BROWN
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I FEEL REASONABLY sure that, after reading the timely and scholarly article on "Latin as an International Auxiliary Language," by Oldfather and Harman, in THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK for November, 1944, all teachers of Latin were ready to imitate the Trojans, and "cuncti simul ore fremebant" (*Aeneid* i. 499). And I trust all will follow the advice contained in the words, "Solvite corde metum, Teucri, secludite curas" (*Aeneid* i. 502). Indeed, the very history of the Latin language should banish any fear from our hearts.

During the period of the Roman conquest, Latin was spread from the narrow

confines of Latium by merchants and traders through Italy, France, Spain, Britain, North Africa, and the Danubian provinces. The Romans used two main agencies in Romanizing newly conquered or acquired territory—colonies, and roads. The roads which were constructed in Italy brought not only the colonies but all parts of the peninsula itself into easy communication with the head of the Empire. All court proceedings were carried on in Latin. Latin was used in laws and proclamations, and no native in any part of the vast Empire could aspire to a post in the civil service unless he had mastered this medium of expression.

The tradition that Latin was the official language of the world was taken up by the Church. The Latin of the Roman official and the Latin of the Church were the influences which made the language spoken throughout the Empire essentially uniform in character. Those who criticize the Church for using a dead language must bear in mind that it was not the Church that introduced a strange language; it is the world that has lost its ancient tongue.

Latin survived for centuries as the official language. The colonies of Rome had a sentimental respect for the Empire and for all its civilization and institutions. Many of the northern people had been converted to Christianity, and had heard Latin used in Church services. Roman soldiers, stationed on the frontiers, married native women and taught Latin to their wives and children. Latin was used by all as the traditional medium of expression both for literary and for legal purposes.

By the seventh century of our era the Romance languages had replaced spoken Latin. But the Church has continued through the centuries to use both oral and written Latin. Dr. Herbert D. Austin, writing on "Lingua Nostra" in the December, 1932, issue of *Italica*, says: "With the Latin Vulgate as her Bible, and all her manuals, rituals, services, official papers, and edicts written in Latin, the Church has never let go of the ancient custom of using one common international language."

Now, unless we are willing to admit that the I. Q. of our day is lower than that of people from the early usage of Latin on through the early Christian era, we must assume that Latin communication is still possible. That is a bold assumption when we consider the fact that the direct method of teaching Latin, so often revived and then discarded, has generally met with failure in America.

Even though American students can write fairly accurate "made" Latin, and translate intelligently, they seldom acquire the art of thinking in Latin. Accordingly, the average student in this country treats a book on the direct method as he would Caesar's *Gallie Wars*. He gets busy with the language. He looks for the meanings

of words. He thumbs his dictionary—often only to find that one-time faithful guide forsaking him in the hour of need, and often misleading him. I have heard of a student who prepared a Latin menu in which he used the word *percutiones* for "beets." When a student listens to a teacher's Latin comments, he mentally converts them into English. When asked a question in Latin, he inwardly shapes his answer in the vernacular.

There is no way to overcome this language difficulty except to teach the student to think directly in Latin, without paying any attention to the English equivalent. Teach him to let the word *equus* bring to mind the quadruped rather than the English word *horse*. Much straight-ahead reading of simple Latin will help. By reading and re-reading, especially by reading aloud, one will unconsciously acquire the habit of thinking in Latin.

When should one begin the study of oral Latin? All stages have been suggested, from the first day in a Latin class to the end of the fourth year. Personally I think it best to begin oral Latin after the fundamental forms have been studied, generally toward the end of the first year of Latin. My method is as follows. Most of the last quarter of the first year is devoted to oral Latin. In the following years four days a week are given to the study of the usual classics, Roman customs, and grammar; one day a week is devoted to oral Latin. The students are given a simple basic Latin vocabulary of conversational words. Sometimes these words are given in mimeographed form, but it is really better to have the student write the words down for himself. A sample list of words for the first day is as follows: *mensa, ianua, schola, fenestra, familia, sella, hodie, heri, cras, voco*, and the numerals from one to ten. Each student makes brief sentences employing these words. Samples of the sentences are: "Ubi est mensa?" "Ubi est familia hodie?" "Estne mensa in schola?" "Nonne eris in schola cras?" They are simple sentences, of course; even Cicero probably said "Ego sum sapiens parvus puer" many years before he rose to the heights of "Si quid est in me ingeni, iudices, quod sentio quam sit exiguum . . ." Beginning students demand a simple style, and the truly cultured are the last to despise it. While many passages from Cicero are used in our classes (e.g., "O tempora, O mores! Senatus haec intellegit, consul videt; hic tamen vivit. Vivit? Immo verq etiam in senatum venit, fit publici consili particeps"), still we are destined to fail if we expect our students to become *pares Ciceroni*.

One of the most helpful means of teaching oral Latin is the use of Victrola records. We have used some fifty recordings, of everything from simple vocabularies to Professor Rand's splendid rendition of the exordium of Vergil's *Aeneid*. By play-

ing a record from three to five minutes at the beginning of a class, one can not only attune the ears of the students to Latin, but furnish material for conversation. Or, in place of records, a student can read to the class from previously studied conversational Latin. Some favor this latter method because of the practice in reading that it affords.

Professor Wasicky has given us a challenge. He has given us a delightful reply to the advocates of utilitarian, *cui bono* principles of education. Could there be anything more utilitarian than a common language for the world? Professor Oldfather has, with sound logic, vividly portrayed our duty in the post-war world. So let our students begin to correspond in written Latin. Let them speak Latin. Let THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK, *validis viribus*, convince the world that oral Latin has not been tried and found wanting, but has been found hard and left untried.

II

By REV. CASIMIR F. KUSZYNSKI

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In the January, 1945, issue of THE CLASSICAL OUTLOOK, Graves Haydon Thompson advocated "Interlingua," or "Latino sine inflexione," which "was conceived by Professor Peano of the University of Turin about 1903." This he considers "the best solution of the problem" (of an international language), because "it is free from idioms."

This very reason, however, seems to make "Interlingua" an impossible medium of communication between different peoples, and therefore an impractical international language. For the purpose of language is to communicate ideas so that these ideas may be understood. Unless a student is well versed in the idioms of the modern languages, how could he clearly convey his ideas through the medium of "Interlingua"?

Taking as an example the ordinary greeting, "How are you?", I cannot understand how it would be possible for the American, the Frenchman, the Pole, and the German to exchange salutations intelligibly in "Interlingua." For the American would say, "Quomodo es tu?", while the Frenchman would ask, "Quomodo te portas?" The Pole would say, "Quomodo te habes?", and the German would ask, "Quomodo vadit?" Dropping the verbal and pronominal inflections, of course, would increase the difficulty.

I wonder, too, whether the youthful Europeans would understand an enthusiastic American boy shouting, "Tu es ibi cum bonis!"

Hence, there would result as many "Interlinguae" as there are modern languages, and the chaos would be even greater than it is now. The joke cited by Professor Thompson might readily be understood by Americans, but people of other nation-

alities would translate it differently, in their own idiomatic "Interlingua."

WHAT CAN THE ASTP TEACH US?

A Condensation of a Paper
By FRED S. DUNHAM
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THE METHOD of teaching foreign languages, as developed by the Army and more recently by the Navy, has elicited widespread interest. The Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) is a common theme in educational and lay periodicals, in committee meetings of language instructors, and in round table discussions.

The big question in the minds of administrators and classroom teachers is: "To what extent can methods and techniques developed in the Army program be employed in the education of civilians in the typical college or high-school classroom?" Educators will follow with great interest the experiments now being conducted in some of our leading colleges and universities.

Teachers of Latin will be especially interested in securing reliable data in regard to the effectiveness of an oral-aural approach to the teaching of a foreign language, even when the primary immediate objective is confessedly the ability to read the language and to translate it into English.

The best guide at present available for evaluating the methods of the ASTP is the report of the Special Survey Committee of the Modern Language Association of America.

The main characteristics of the Army program and the operational conditions favorable to its success are as follows:

1. The Army provided for fifteen to nineteen hours per week of classroom instruction in one language extending over a period of six to nine months. This is the equivalent of a full load of class work for civilian college students. For obvious reasons such a plan would not be practical for college students, and would be quite undesirable for immature adolescents in our schools.

Some of the instructors in Army programs have told me that the number of hours per week was too many, and that a period of nine months was a longer time than was actually needed to carry out the objective. On the other hand, a program of three or four hours per week in college is not enough. Some colleges have under advisement a plan whereby the beginners' course in a foreign language will be increased to eight hours per week of class time, with approximately half of the time to be used for oral-aural drill under the supervision of an instructor.

2. The directive originally issued by the Army restricted drill classes to ten men,

wisely stressing the "crucial importance" of small classes.

In contrast with the Army's practice, if limitations are placed on the size of classes in college or in high school, the restriction usually goes in the other direction. Unless a minimum number is enrolled, the class is cancelled. The answer to this difficulty would appear to lie in a more enlightened public and in an administration which fully appreciates and recognizes the values of foreign language study. In all probability the war will drive home the importance of maintaining closer relations and means of communication with foreign countries.

3. The Army had control of the trainees' time for twenty-four hours per day. In interviews I have learned that some of the instructors in the Army program believe that Army supervision of the trainees' total time was a disadvantage. The strenuous military drill to which they were subjected left them so exhausted physically that they were unable to concentrate either in class or in independent study. The survey committee, however, claims (1) that extra-curricular activities were an essential part of the language program; and (2) that many hours were spent in outside preparation. In contrast, the college or high school student spreads his energy over a wide range of interests, and his "homework" is not supervised.

4. The Army employed an elaborate system of screening. The men were screened at STAR (Selection, Training, and Replacement) centers, where they were examined and assigned the language they were to study. Then they were sent to some particular institution for instruction. The trainee had to be at least twenty-two years of age, and he must have completed one year of college work. An effort was made to assign the student to the language of his choice, but numerous exceptions were made where men were needed to fill the quota in some particular language.

The age requirement, of course, does not apply to high-school students, and most college freshmen are under twenty-two years of age. The idea of placement, however, is receiving considerable attention in some colleges and universities, notably in the University of Wisconsin. The problem of selection and placement of high-school students is still unsolved. Committed to the principle of exploration, the high schools too frequently permit students to follow the line of least resistance in their selection of subjects. Seldom is assignment based on the actual capacity and aptitude of students, and the needs of a cosmopolitan democratic society for citizens of high intelligence, moral character, and good taste. While high schools cannot adopt wholesale the Army's screening and placement program, it is desirable and feasible to assign students to patterns of study which place special em-

phasis on required work and still leave room for exploration in free electives. The selection and assignment, however, must be made impartially and without patronage or personal prejudice. The policy and attitude should be that of guaranteeing exposure to experiences—not merely of offering opportunities which many capable students, either through faulty guidance or on account of their immature judgment, too frequently never experience. The advent of the war revealed many shortages in the intellectual equipment of our man power. Unless we give serious thought to our educational planning now, the termination of the war will find us equally unprepared in the areas of language, literature, and history of the various nations which will look to us for intelligent counsel and leadership.

5. The Army followed a continuous and fluid policy of homogeneous grouping, thereby making it possible for the slower students to work together, and for the brighter and more experienced men to go as far as they liked.

While some colleges place students in classes according to ability, in general the students are not so classified, and they remain in the same class throughout the term or year.

Homogeneous grouping on the secondary level is impractical except in the larger high schools. Continuous regrouping is seldom feasible on account of the rigid daily program, but the plan is possible where two or more classes of the same level are scheduled for the same hour. In schools where homogeneous grouping does not prevail, groups within classes can be provided for and taught simultaneously by the same teacher. This plan has been followed satisfactorily for several years at the University High School at Ann Arbor.

6. While we should have expected high morale under Army discipline, such was not the case in some institutions. Conditions making for bad morale were: conflicting directives, inadequate supervision of drill-masters, assignment of trainees to languages which they did not wish to study, delays in transferring men to other branches of service, lack of equipment, and postponement of promotions in rank. In general, however, where rewards and promotions were immediate and certain, the morale was good and motivation was strong.

For the college student the rewards are remote, while the typical high-school student finds them so far in the future that he hardly ever thrills at the prospect or feels the pressure of time. A fluid state of promotion would not only make for higher morale, but would speed up the students' effort.

7. When we read the Survey Committee's report, we gain the impression

that the Army provided almost unlimited visual and auditory equipment. Although cost was not a consideration, such was not the case in some of the training centers. Instructors in several institutions say that they encountered difficulty in securing adequate equipment on account of red tape, conflicting directives, and long delays. Some instructors had to use their own equipment, or borrow it from some local institution.

The small colleges are seldom better equipped than large high schools. The smaller high schools possess little or no equipment of this kind. The larger high schools usually have such equipment as phonographs, projectors, and motion picture machines; but the cost of films and the scarcity of appropriate films preclude their general use for classroom purposes. Teachers of languages, however, can and should make more general use of visual materials, such as maps, charts, slides, and photographs.

8. The majority of the institutions which taught courses in foreign languages for soldiers gave an immense amount of time and energy to preparing the materials of instruction, in planning the daily procedures, and in continuous supervision. The success of the program depended in no small degree on the thoroughness and carefulness with which the instructional staff, working together, planned, organized, and supervised the work.

A similar amount of time and cooperation in planning would undoubtedly be profitable in civilian colleges, where the individual instructor usually assumes full responsibility for the effectiveness of the course. High-school teachers also would be able to do a better job if they had more time to plan and prepare their instructional materials, to confer with other teachers, and to assemble in staff and departmental meetings.

9. The objective of the Army specialized program was the early development of ability to speak fluently and understand the colloquial form of the language. Most of their activities, therefore, were restricted to oral and aural situations. Reading, writing, and translation were secondary or incidental.

Although many colleges offer courses in the oral use of a language, it is not at all likely that they will be willing to increase oral-aural instruction at the expense of reading, writing, and translation.

While no one will seriously question the value of reading, writing, and translating, the committee which conducted the survey of the Army program reports that in the opinion of the teachers the emphasis on the oral technique helped rather than hindered reading. Pending the time when we have incontrovertible scientific proof as to the superiority of the oral or reading method, college instructors would do well to consider the

honest opinions of competent members of the Army's instructional staff.

College and high-school teachers of foreign languages might benefit by a re-evaluation of their objectives in the light of the achievements of the trainees in their ability to read, write, and translate, although those objectives were secondary. The objective aimed at in high school is generally the ability to read and translate a language. If an oral-aural approach actually accelerates this ability, then it would appear to be more economical of time to devote the earlier part of the course to hearing and speaking the language, and either introduce gradually or postpone the reading and translation of literature. This is especially applicable to translation, because the process actually inhibits the acquisition of power to think in the foreign language, and postpones the period of oral-aural fluency. In any case, teachers who themselves lack oral fluency in the foreign language can give vitality to their teaching even if they limit the oral use of the language to questions and answers based on the reading matter of the textbook.

10. The Army fully realized the importance of a knowledge of regional background in the study of a foreign language. Accordingly, the ASTP allotted forty per cent of the total instructional time to the study of the geography, history, politics, economics, and mores of the region.

In the case of college students such instruction is usually incidental, and seldom if ever guaranteed. Much can be accomplished along this line through careful supervision of the student's concentration program and by increasing the number of class hours for a course. The writer recently taught a four-hour course in Tacitus (formerly a two-hour course) in which half of the time was devoted to historical and archaeological studies of the early peoples of Germany and Britain, and the other two hours to the reading of the *Germania* and *Agricola*.

High-school language teachers have long followed the practice of teaching the life as well as the language and literature of a people. What the Army has taught us is that more class time is needed for so ambitious a program. The teachers feel that they are attempting the impossible. Frequently, beginning classes meet only four hours a week, and sometimes less. A beginning class should have not less than five hours a week of actual instruction in the language. Extra time for "regional" study can be gained by cooperating with teachers of English and social studies. To make such a plan effective, the three groups of teachers would have to plan the work together, set up a joint program for the same group of students, and assume responsibility for the teaching of certain units of work previously agreed upon.

OVID — WHY BANISHED?

A Condensation of a Paper
By EDWIN W. BOWEN
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WHY DID THE EMPEROR Augustus banish the poet Ovid to the little town of Tomi, near the mouth of the Danube on the Black Sea? What was the connection, if any, between Ovid's crime and that of Julia, the Emperor's granddaughter, who was banished about the same time to the island of Tremus off the coast of Apulia? Why was Ovid's punishment harsher, requiring him to take up his residence among the barbarians on the outskirts of civilization and never return to Italy, whereas Julia was to be only a short distance from Italy, though not permitted to return thither? These are interesting questions, and they challenge investigation.

Historians have never entertained any doubt as to Julia's offense. Despite the warning example of her mother Julia, who was banished for a similar offense, young Julia followed the primrose path of dalliance to her own disgrace, in utter disregard of the Emperor's reform measures for Roman society. She flouted and defied the conventions of decent living and respectability, which the traditionalist party, including Livia and Tiberius and the old aristocracy, considered as fundamental for the state.

When the report of Julia's scandalous conduct came to Augustus' attention, the Emperor confronted his granddaughter with proof of her offense, demanding that she and her chief paramour, Decimus Junius Silanus, and others who had violated the *Lex de Adulteriis*, should leave Rome at once for such places of banishment as he might designate or stand public trial before a jury. The Emperor had authority for this act by virtue of a statute passed in 23 B. C.; and in fact, as her *paterfamilias*, he could have had Julia put to death, and the others involved prosecuted in court, with confiscation of their property and irrevocable exile as the penalty. To avoid the painful consequences of their moral turpitude, the accused all accepted the alternative banishment, galling though it was.

At this juncture Ovid comes into the picture. He, too, was banished at that same time. It does not follow that he was guilty of the same crime; yet he must have been *particeps criminis* in some degree. Augustus must have had conclusive evidence of some serious offense which Ovid had committed. What the offense was requires investigation.

Several grounds for Ovid's banishment have been suggested. One is that Ovid may have been involved in Julia's misconduct, either as *particeps criminis* or as accessory. A second alleged cause is his

amatory poetry, notably his *Art of Love*, in which he earnestly strove to thwart and defeat Augustus' social reforms by perverting Roman women. A third alleged cause is his association with Julia's corrupt and dissolute set. A fourth is the enmity of Livia and Tiberius and their puritanic friends to the frivolous poet of Julia's coterie. Still another is some supposed connection of Ovid with one of the little conspiracies against Augustus which arose in the latter years of his long reign.

Of the five alleged reasons for the poet's banishment, perhaps the most widely accepted should be considered first of all—viz., that Ovid's erotic poetry was an offense against public morals and was in open conflict with Augustus' reform program. Ovid published his *Art of Love* just about the time of the banishment of the Elder Julia, about 2 B. C. Now, if the Emperor felt that these poems were such a flagrant offense against public morals, why did he not banish their author at the time he banished his own daughter, rather than wait ten years before executing the sentence? It is true that in the interim Ovid was writing some erotic poetry—his second edition of the *Amores*, and his *Heroides*; but he was engaged mainly in writing the *Fasti* and his greatest work, the *Metamorphoses*. It seems unreasonable to accept this traditional reason as the chief ground for the poet's banishment.

Ovid's own writings furnish some evidence of his offense. In his *Tristia*, written in exile, he refers to an error and a *carmen* as having brought about his banishment. The latter is generally interpreted to mean his *Art of Love*. In the second book of the *Tristia* Ovid refers to the charges against him as being false, and expresses incredulity that verses written so long before could condemn him (ii, 539-544). In the first book (i, 5, 42) he asserts that it was his *simplicitas* that caused him to be banished. Does he mean that he expressed himself too freely about some matter concerning the Emperor's family of which he had knowledge?

We return now to the alleged reason that Ovid was actually involved in Julia's crime. History establishes the fact that Ovid was on friendly terms with Julia, but there is no record of his having overstepped the bounds of propriety in that relationship. He was the most conspicuous figure in the frivolous and wayward circle that revolved around her, just as he had been in the similar circle around her mother. He was a thrice married man, and had a grown daughter, Perilla; and it is attested in his elegies that he loved his wife and daughter very devotedly. One may inquire in this connection about Corinna, so celebrated in his verses. It is impossible to determine Corinna's identity. Some scholars think she was Julia, others think she was but a poetic creation. Others

think she was his real wife. At any rate, the indictment of Julia named Decimus Junius Silanus, not Ovid, as the man who encompassed her ruin. Unless Ovid was an arrant hypocrite, he must be exonerated from the charge of accomplishing Julia's undoing.

However, it is possible that Ovid may have been accessory to the fact of Julia's misconduct, and failed to inform the Emperor. In one of his elegies (*Tristia* iii, 5, 49-52) he says, "I am punished because my unguarded eyes were witnesses of a sin; and my crime is that I had eyes. I cannot entirely defend my fault, but my mistake embraces a part of my accusation." This is very significant; for the *Lex de Adulteriis* was very far-reaching, and involved any one who as an accessory may have been concerned in its infringement. Perhaps by inadvertence Ovid became aware of Julia's crime, and by failing to inform Augustus implicated himself unintentionally. Presumably the conservative aristocratic party, grievously offended by Ovid's erotic poetry, appealed to Augustus as head of the State to mete out adequate punishment to Ovid as well as to the other violators of the moral law, if he desired his social reforms to be a success. Augustus gave him the alternative of accepting the sentence of banishment, or of standing a public trial. Moreover, the Emperor required all the poet's writings to be put on the *index expurgatorius* and excluded from the public libraries.

How far Augustus was influenced by the pressure of the traditionalists, including Livia and Tiberius, it is obviously impossible to determine. It was characteristic of some of this group, as for example Tiberius, never to forget or to forgive. At all events, the conservatives had at last triumphed and won their fight for decency and clean living, and had the keen satisfaction of seeing Ovid punished for his salacious poetry. Furthermore, in this case, as in that of Julia the Elder, the Emperor gave a striking proof of his sincerity in the enforcement of his laws for social reform.

The charge that Ovid was associated with Julia's corrupt and dissolute coterie seems, therefore, to merit serious consideration as a true and genuine basis for the punishment inflicted upon him by Augustus. Likewise, the second suggested reason, viz., that Ovid was an accessory to Julia's misconduct, appears very reasonable, both theories being very closely related. The fourth reason, viz., that Ovid had incurred the displeasure of Livia and Tiberius, is not quite so cogent; for though these two members of the imperial family certainly wasted no sympathy on Ovid, and shed no tears upon his departure for distant Tomi, it cannot be established that their prejudice completely motivated Augustus' action. As to the last reason, that Ovid was banished because he might

have been identified with some little conspiracy to overthrow Augustus in his later years, this is sheer assumption, and has no basis in fact or even probability. It merits no credence, and may be dismissed summarily.

BOOK NOTES

Greek Literature in Translation. By Whitney J. Oates and Charles T. Murphy. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1944. Pp. xvi + 1072. \$5.00.

This book is a companion volume to Guinagh and Dorjahn's *Latin Literature in Translation*, published in 1942. Any one who undertakes to compile a book of this sort sets himself a triple task: he must decide what authors to include, what selections of these authors to include, and, in many cases, which of several translators to follow. The magnitude of the task of compiling the present volume can be appreciated when one discovers that there are 236 selections, long and short, from 58 Greek authors, and that the list of translators includes 63 British and American scholars, ranging in time from Ben Jonson to one of the editors.

The relative importance which the editors assign to their 58 Greek authors may be roughly measured by the number of pages devoted to each of them—200 to Aeschylus, 161 to Plato, 134 to Homer, 81 to Euripides, 64 to Aristotle, 59 to Sophocles, 40 to Thucydides, 36 to Herodotus, 35 to Plutarch, 32 to Aristophanes, 21 to Theocritus, and less than 15 pages to each of the remaining 47 authors included in the book; some rate only a fraction of a page each.

On the whole, the difficult task of choosing authors, passages, and translators seems to this reviewer to have been well performed, although it is likely that a good many readers will be surprised to find that Euripides is represented only by *Hippolytus* and *Bacchae*, and Aristophanes only by *Lysistrata*. The editors are certainly to be commended for giving the general reader and the student of Greek literature large units from the more important authors, e.g., seven complete plays from the writers of tragedy, and twelve complete books from Homer. The editors have inserted at appropriate places a few—perhaps too few—brief introductory statements, e.g., on Homer, Tragedy, Comedy, Philosophy.

A general bibliography, a special bibliography of works in English literature showing the influence of Greek authors, and a 22-page glossary of proper names add greatly to the value of the book.

—W. L. C.



Magna vis est in virtutibus.—Cicero.

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